



Quantum dot-sensitized solar cells—perspective and recent developments: A review of Cd chalcogenide quantum dots as sensitizers

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ABSTRACT

The emergence of quantum dot-sensitized solar cells (QDSSCs) has provided an alternative way to harvest sunlight for energy conversion. Among all the QDSSCs, cadmium chalcogenide (CdX , $\text{X}=\text{S}$, Se or Te) based QDSSCs have gained a significant interest due to their easy fabrication, low cost and high performance. However, their performance still does not match with that of their dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) counterpart. In this review, the concept and mechanism behind the QDSSCs are reviewed. Fabrication methods and possible approaches for improving the Cd chalcogenide QDSSC performance are also discussed. It is worthwhile to note that the efficiency of a QDSSC depends on the fabrication method of the quantum dots, morphology of the photoanode, type of electrolyte used and the choice of the counter electrode. It is therefore, imperative for engineering of materials and optimization of the fabrication method for the improvement of QDSSCs performance.

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1. Introduction

Renewable energy has been a global issue in recent years. Due to limited fossil fuel reserve and global warming issues, demand for renewable energy has increased. Solar energy has emerged as a potential and marketable alternative energy. Energy from sunlight that reaches the Earth in one hour (4.3×10^{20} J) alone is sufficient to fulfill the energy consumption on the planet in a year (4.1×10^{20} J) [1]. The tapping of sunlight energy has been made easy with the introduction of low-cost and high-efficiency solar cells. A wide range of solar cell technologies are being researched and developed currently, which includes dye-sensitized nanocrystalline solar cells [2], bulk heterojunction solar cells [3,4], depleted heterojunction solar cells [5,6], and hybrid organic–inorganic solar cells [7–9].

Chronologically, solar cell technologies have evolved into three generations [10]. First generation photovoltaic cells are based on a single crystalline semiconductor wafer. Second generation photovoltaic solar cells utilize inorganic thin film structure in the cell assembly. They are cheaper to produce, but the efficiency, which is less than 14% in amorphous thin film solar cells is lower than the efficiency exhibited by the single junction crystalline photovoltaic cell of the first generation that can reach as high as 27%. Theoretically, single junction cells should be able to exhibit a maximum efficiency of $\sim 33\%$ [11], a limit set by Shockley–Queisser thermodynamics. Thus, a new solar cell technology is required in order to achieve efficiencies greater than 33% with lower production cost. The onset of this breakthrough is the third generation photovoltaic cells [12]. The relation between the photovoltaic production cost per square meter with the solar cell module efficiency and the cost per unit power are shown in Fig. 1, [13]. It is predicted with the emergence and advancement of the third generation photovoltaic cells, higher efficiency devices are possible with lower production cost. Some examples of solar cells which fall under this category are dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs), quantum dot-sensitized solar cells (QDSSCs), colloidal quantum dot solar cells (CQD), organic solar cells, etc.

Low-cost and high-efficiency solar cells were first introduced as DSSCs with inorganic ruthenium based dyes in early 90s [14]. From then onwards, numerous researches have been focused on the development and characterization of different dyes for application in DSSCs. These include but not limited to natural dye materials [15,16] and synthetic organic dyes [17]. Based on the DSSC's structure, quantum dot (QD) was introduced as a

replacement of dye due to its excellent opto-electronic properties [2,18,19]. QDs are nano-sized semiconductor particles whose physical and chemical properties are size-dependent. Among the notable characteristics of QDs include tunability of band gap energy, narrow emission spectrum, good photostability, broad excitation spectra, high extinction coefficient and multiple exciton generation [20–23]. With these advantages, researchers were able to fabricate solar cell devices achieving efficiency up to 7% in QD related solar cells [24,25]. Other upcoming trend is “green” QDSSC where less hazardous precursors are used during the preparation of QDs [26].

Over the last few years, cadmium chalcogenide (CdX, X=S, Se or Te) QDs have attracted more attention in QDSSC research. The widespread of research activities in CdX QDs are due to their distinct properties such as ease of fabrication, tunability of band gap energy through size control and possible multiple exciton generation as mentioned above. It is noted that CdX absorbs photon efficiently because it has a bulk material band gap above 1.3 eV (band gap for CdS, CdSe and CdTe are 2.25 eV, 1.73 eV and 1.49 eV respectively) [27]. By altering the QD size, the band gap can be tuned further to match a desired band gap range. It is therefore critical to understand the physics and chemistry of these CdX QDs for a better research focus.

This short review will concentrate on the concepts of the QDSSC with emphasis on cadmium chalcogenide (CdX, X=S, Se or Te) as QD sensitizers. The fundamental electrical characteristics of solar cells will be first reviewed. This will be followed by basic working principles of the QDSSC. Subsequent sections are dedicated to the synthesis methods and sensitization with CdX QDs. Finally, the methods used to improve the performance and the stability of the CdX QDSSCs will be discussed.

2. Basic principles of QDSSCs

2.1. Structure of a DSSC and QDSSC

A typical DSSC consists of a dye-sensitized photoanode (working electrode) and a counter electrode (CE) separated by a salt electrolyte [28]. Photoanode consists of a mesoporous wide band gap semiconductor layer that is attached to the conducting glass. Typically, TiO_2 is chosen for the mesoporous semiconductor although other oxides such as ZnO and Nb_2O_5 are possible [19,29,30]. A monolayer of charge transfer dye is then attached on the surface of the mesoporous wide band gap semiconductor. This photoanode section is in contact with a redox electrolyte or hole conductor. The structure is completed by coupling with a counter electrode (cathode) as shown in Fig. 2.

The evolution of DSSC to QDSSC does not take a big leap. The only physical difference between the DSSC and QDSSC is the sensitizing materials. In the QDSSC, the dye is replaced by inorganic nanoparticles of QDs [31]. The mesoporous TiO_2 is coated with these QDs using colloidal QD or in situ fabrication [18,32–34]. A general structure of a QDSSC and its operation is depicted in Fig. 3.

2.2. Performance parameters

The function of a conventional photovoltaic solar cell is based on the formation of an electrical barrier between n- and p-type semiconductors. The potential difference across this barrier creates an electrical diode structure. Thus, the current–voltage characteristic of the solar cell follows the diode equations. Fig. 4 is an illustration of current–voltage characteristics of a solar cell in the dark and under illumination conditions.

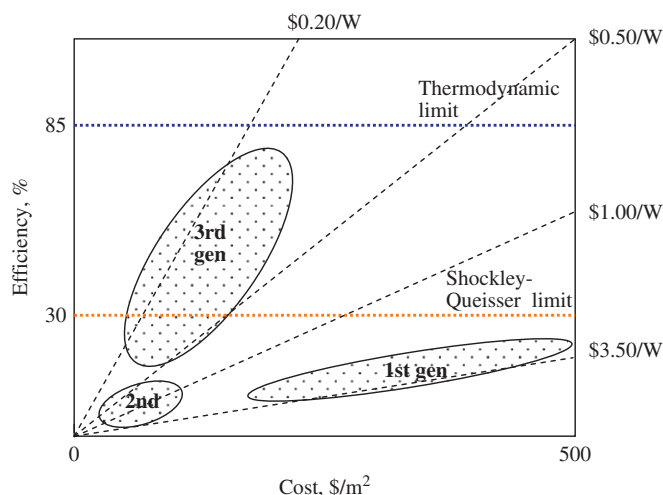


Fig. 1. Efficiency-cost trade-off for the three generations of solar cell technology, wafers, thin-films and advanced thin-films (year 2003 dollars). Adapted from Ref. [13].

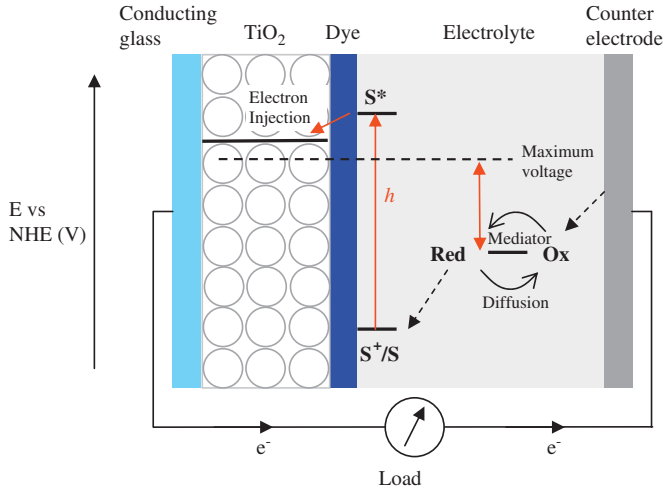


Fig. 2. Structure and operating principle of a typical DSSC.

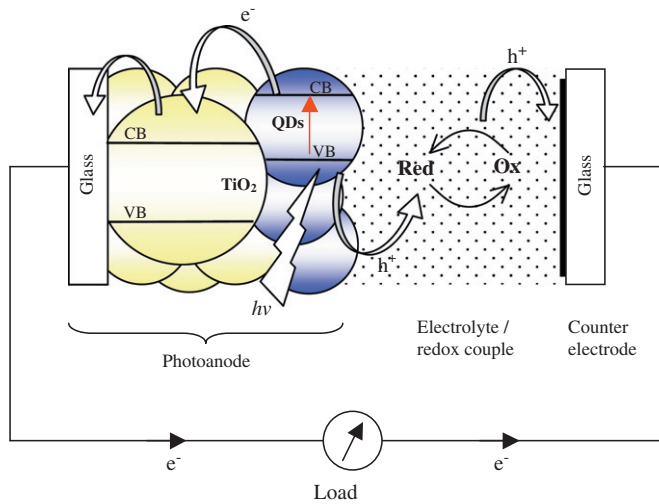


Fig. 3. Structure and operating principle of a typical QDSSC.

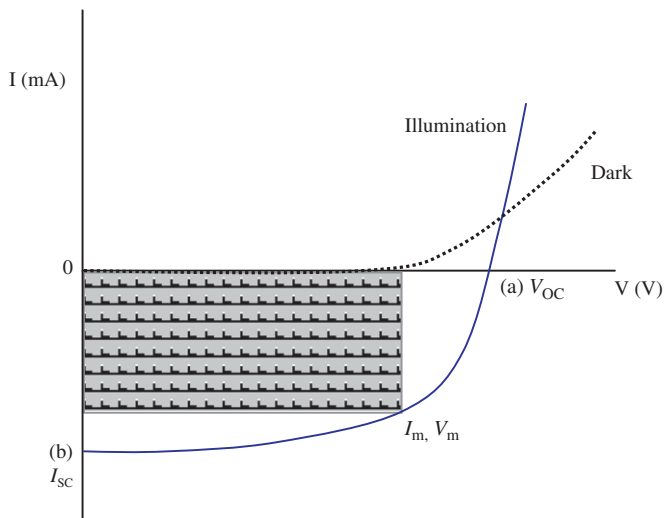


Fig. 4. Current-voltage curves of a photovoltaic solar cell under dark and illuminated conditions. The intersection value with the abscissa and ordinate are the open-circuit voltage (V_{oc}) and the short-circuit current (I_{sc}) respectively. Maximum power output, P_{max} , is determined by the maximized product of I_m and V_m . By dividing the P_{max} with the product of I_{sc} and V_{oc} , it results the fill factor (FF).

Under the dark condition, there is no current flowing. However, when sufficiently high voltage is applied i.e. higher than open circuit voltage, the contacts start to inject carriers to produce current at forward bias. Upon light illumination, additional photocurrent will be generated and flow across the junction. The maximum generated photocurrent contributes to the short-circuit current (I_{sc}) at (b). During open circuit when there's no current flowing, the open-circuit voltage (V_{oc}) is defined at (a). Power output then can be determined from the product of current and voltage in the fourth quadrant of the current-voltage curve. At the maximum power point (I_m and V_m), the product is the largest, where the maximum rectangle area in the figure meets the curve [7]. This defines the fill factor (FF).

$$FF = (I_m \times V_m) / (I_{sc} \times V_{oc}) \quad (1)$$

The maximum theoretical FF value is 1.0. However, in reality the value is limited to 0.83 based on the diode Eq. [1]. The photovoltaic power conversion efficiency, η , is defined by the electrical power density divided by the incident solar power density (P). P is standardized at 1000 W m^{-2} for photovoltaic cell tested at spectral intensity matching the sun's intensity on earth's surface at an angle of 48.2° (equivalent to AM 1.5 spectrum) [7].

$$\eta = I_m \times V_m / P \quad (2a)$$

$$\eta = I_{sc} \times V_{oc} \times FF / P \quad (2b)$$

QDSSCs also function like junction solar cells under dark and illuminated conditions and therefore, their performance parameters can also be obtained using the above equations.

In a three-electrode measurement, conversion efficiency is measured as incident photon to current efficiency (IPCE). IPCE is a measure of ratio of charge carriers collected at the electrodes to the number of incident photons, also known as external quantum efficiency. IPCE at different wavelengths is determined from the short circuit photocurrents (I_{sc}) observed at different excitation wavelengths using the expression [7]

$$IPCE \% = (1240 \times I_{sc}) / (\lambda \times I_{inc}) 100 \quad (3)$$

where I_{inc} is the incident light power (i.e. the energy of the light incident on the electrode) and λ is wavelength. For an ideal solar cell, the I_{sc} value can be determined from the IPCE data with the standard AM 1.5 spectrum. However, in QDSSC, the case is not ideal. Thus the calculated I_{sc} might be an approximation for the measured I_{sc} under 1 sun (1000 W m^{-2}) [21].

2.3. Working mechanism

The working mechanism of the QDSSC is very similar to that of the DSSC. When the QDs (CdX , $\text{X}=\text{S}$, Se or Te) are subjected to band gap excitation, upon illumination, electron-hole pairs are formed in the QDs. The electrons will enter into the conduction band (CB) of the QD and the hole remains in the valence band (VB). The excited QD injects the electron from its CB into the CB of the wide band gap semiconductor (e.g. TiO_2) and in doing so it itself is oxidized with the hole remaining in the valence band. The injected electron from the QD percolates through the porous TiO_2 network and ultimately reaches the conducting glass. From there it travels through the external load and completes the circuit by entering back through the counter electrode. The generated voltage is perceived as an evidence of the solar energy conversion to electric energy. This voltage corresponds to the difference between the quasi-Fermi level of the electron in the photoanode and the redox potential of the polysulfide electrolyte [30], which usually consists of a ($\text{S}^{2-}/\text{S}_x^{2-}$) redox couple. The oxidized QD is then restored (hole is filled with electron) when it is reduced by S^{2-} from the electrolyte and in turn it is oxidized

into S_x^{2-} that diffuses to the counter electrode. Chemically, the following reactions take place where oxidation occurs at the photoanode–electrolyte interface [35]



and at the counter electrode, reduction occurs where the S_x^{2-} is reverted back to S^{2-}



The whole key processes of the photocurrent generation can be illustrated as in Fig. 5. It should be concluded that QDs have a photovoltaic response upon illumination which results in photocurrent and voltage generation. They have the tendency of charging up to a state that changes the relative energetics within the cell which ultimately influence the generation and recombination processes [36].

3. Transport processes and properties of QDSSCs

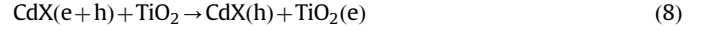
3.1. Charge separation and transport

In the DSSC, charge separation occurs at the interface between wide band gap semiconductor/dye and electrolyte. For QDSSC, charge separation reactions are at the surface between wide band gap semiconductor/QD and redox electrolyte. Upon illumination, the excited QDs will generate electron–hole pairs [37–39]

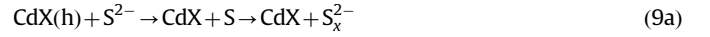


where e and h denote electron and hole generated, respectively. At the interface between TiO_2 and the excited QDs, charge transfer

takes place



where Red and Ox are the reduced and oxidized conditions of the electrolyte. Thus, for $CdX-TiO_2$ system with polysulfide redox couple, the following reaction can be expressed as



It has been observed that the electron transfer is size-dependent especially in QD– TiO_2 system and that the charge injection dynamics are determined by the QDs [39]. Different pH electrolyte solution could also modulate the charge injection process when in contact with the photoanode as observed in fluorescence spectra reported by Chakrapani et al. [40]. At higher pH value (more alkaline), the CB of TiO_2 shifted to more negative potentials. This results in a decrease of the energy difference between CB band edges of QD and TiO_2 . Consequently, electron injection rate would be decreased. One interesting point to take note is that there is no significant difference in the electron injection and recombination of injected electrons on the sizes of the QDs [41].

3.2. Advantages of QDs as sensitizers

Some of the advantages of QDs are tunable energy gaps, ability of multiple exciton generation, photostability, low cost and high absorption coefficient, which is known to reduce the dark current and increase the overall efficiency of solar cells [42]. Of all these, tunable energy gaps and multiple exciton generation features are the most desirable characteristics of the QDs [20–23].

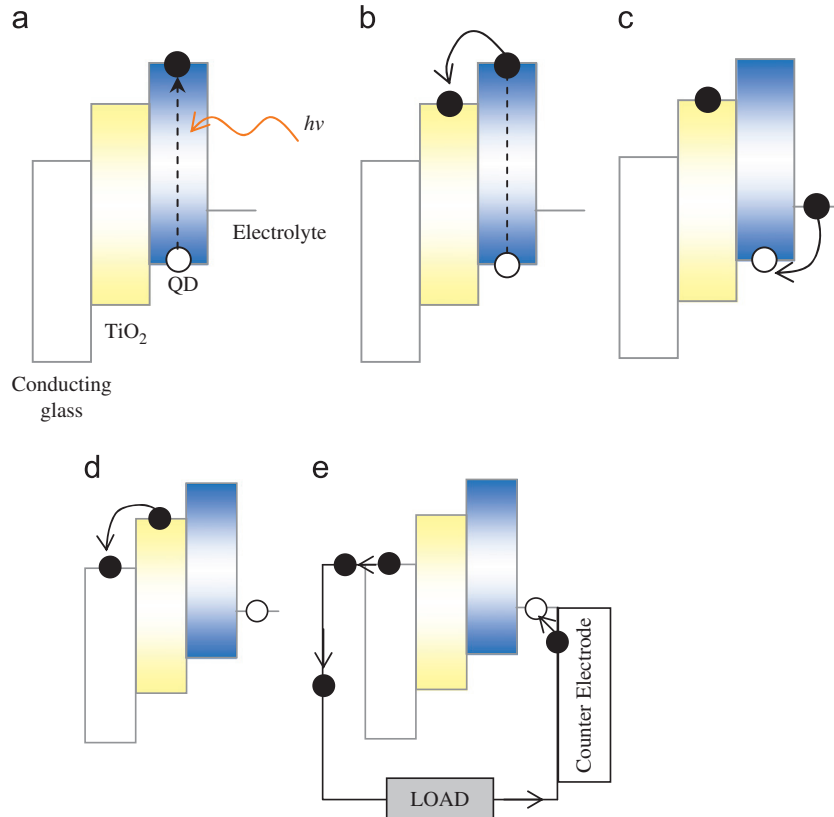


Fig. 5. Schematic of an energy diagram of a QDSSC stack under flat band conditions. Key processes leading to the generation of photocurrent are shown in (a)–(e).

3.2.1. Tunable energy gaps

Various research groups have studied the ability of QDs as sensitizers in QDSSCs [22,23,31,43]. The QD properties mentioned in the preceding sections are not only limited to Cd chalcogenides but applicable to other QD materials as well. The main motivation of using QDs as sensitizers in solar cell is due to their tunable energy band gaps, which can control their absorption range [19]. There are several reports in the literature showing that CdS and CdSe with tunable band gaps property are capable of converting visible light to electric energy [39,44]. Vogel et al. [19] demonstrated that efficient charge separation can be optimized by tuning the size of the QDs utilizing the quantization effect. Kongkanand et al. [39] separately reported that by varying the size of CdSe QDs assembled on TiO_2 films, improvement in photoelectrochemical response and photoconversion efficiency can be obtained (Fig. 6). With the decrease of CdSe particle size, photocurrent increases due to the shift of the CB to more negative potentials which in turn increases the driving force for charge injection. As a result, higher IPCE is obtained at the excitonic band. On the other hand, if the particle size is increased, the particles will have better absorption in the visible region. The disadvantage of this is lower effectiveness of electron injection into TiO_2 as compared with smaller-sized CdSe QDs.

This size dependent effect is made possible due to the quantum confinement effect exhibited by the QD itself [43,45]. Quantum confinement effect can be manifested when QDs in colloidal solution show different color corresponding to the change of particle size,

which influences a different absorption band of light. When the QD particles are sufficiently small, the effective band gap energy of the QD is wider. Subsequently, the optical absorptions and emissions in relation with excitations across the band gap shift towards higher energies [21]. Quantum size effects have been demonstrated by Gorer et al. with the observed blue shift of the optical spectra of CdSe films as the crystal size decreases [46]. This phenomenon is also highlighted in CdS QDs, as reported by Thambidurai et al. [47] where the same blue shift was observed in the optical spectra of smaller CdS QDs. Therefore, we can conclude that a combination of different quantum dot sizes in a cell will have better efficiency due to wider absorption of light by the quantum dots having a range of band gaps.

3.2.2. Multiple exciton generation

Multiple exciton generation (MEG) in QDs from a single photon have been widely studied [31,48–54]. In general, it is the generation of more than one electron–hole pair upon the absorption of a photon. This phenomenon was first demonstrated in PbS and PbSe QDs systems in year 2004–2005 [48–50]. However, subsequent studies revealed that multiple exciton generation has not been detected in CdSe and CdTe QDs systems [55] though some latest investigations showed positive results [53,56,57]. The process could be mediated by different mechanisms in CdSe nanoparticles. Essentially, multiple excitons are generated when hot carriers produce more than one electron–hole pair through impact ionization. More details of MEG can be found in the review by Nozik [31].

Upon absorption of solar radiation, photon with energies greater than the band gap creates electrons and holes. At this point, the excess kinetic energy is equal to the difference between the photon energy and the band gap, which creates an effective temperature condition for the carriers. The temperature of the carriers is higher than the lattice temperature. Thus, the term hot carriers (or hot electrons and hot holes) is used.

The inverse of impact ionization is the Auger process, which is the recombination of two or more electron/hole pairs to produce a single energetic electron–hole pair. Given the possibility of Auger process, it is imminent that the impact ionization process to be faster than the carrier's cooling or relaxation rate. To remedy this, the hole is usually removed from the QD's core by a fast hole trap at the surface which eventually block the Auger process [31]. A simple schematic diagram depicting the impact ionization and Auger recombination is shown in Fig. 7. Efficient multiple exciton generation is predicted to enhance the conversion efficiencies of QDSSC up to 44% [58].

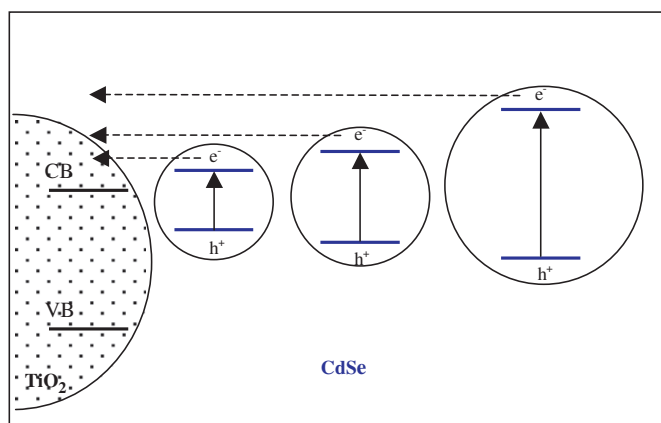


Fig. 6. Schematic diagram illustrating the energy levels of different-sized CdSe QDs and TiO_2 . (The injection of electrons from CdSe QDs into TiO_2 is influenced by the energy difference between the two conduction bands. Note that band positions are for reference only and not to scale). Adapted from Ref. [39].

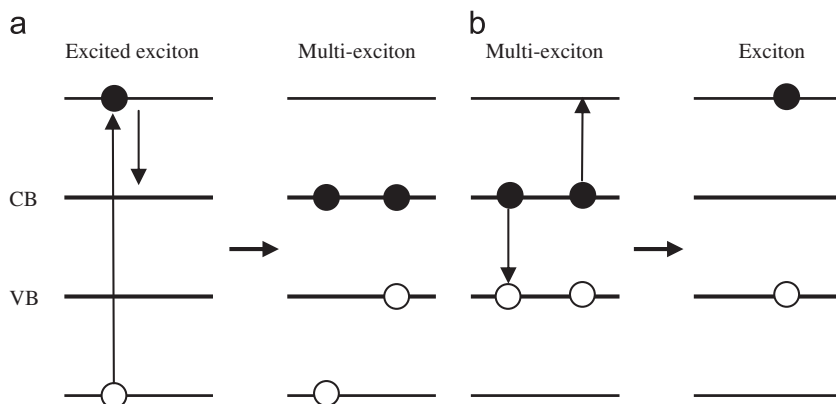


Fig. 7. Schematic diagram of (a) impact ionization and (b) Auger recombination processes. Electrons (filled circles), holes (empty circles), conduction band (CB) and valence band (VB).

4. Preparation of quantum dot sensitizers

There are various methods for preparing QDs and attaching them to the wide band gap semiconductor material [59]. Generally, these methods can be categorized into two major methods: in situ fabrication and attachment of pre-synthesized colloidal QD. In situ fabrication method is the most used approach for QDs preparation. It is facile and low cost. Chemical bath deposition (CBD) and successive ionic layer adsorption and reaction (SILAR) are two well known in situ techniques. Not only the techniques are simple, but they also can be used in large scale production. However, these techniques do not allow precise control of the particle size distribution of the QDs.

The other approach is to use pre-synthesized QDs (also known as ex situ fabrication). QDs are usually prepared ex situ and adsorbed on wide band gap semiconductor surface by using molecular linkers that have various functional groups. QDs can also be deposited directly without using linker molecules. This technique enables the precise control over the size and hence the spectral absorption properties of the QDs.

4.1. Chemical bath deposition (CBD)

In the CBD method, nucleation and growth of QDs take place in one bath. Cationic and anionic solutions are prepared separately and placed in a container to form a bath solution for slow reaction. QDs are grown on the surface of the wide band gap semiconductor on an electrode surface by dipping the electrode into the bath solution for a defined period. Thus, the QDs deposition is controlled by varying the dipping time. This method has been used to attach CdS and CdSe QDs onto wide band gap semiconductors [33]. Recently, a new type of CBD approach has been introduced which is referred to as sequential CBD (S-CBD) [60]. This method is however, very similar to the SILAR method described below. In a latest development, microwave assisted CBD is used and this method is capable of producing QDs that can improve the short circuit current density as well as power conversion efficiency in QDSSCs [61,62]. Here the deposition of QDs is done with TiO₂ electrode immersed into a sealed container containing a precursor aqueous solution. The container is then put into a microwave system for a suitable microwave treatment. The addition of the microwave step can spur faster nucleation and growth of QDs. Zhu et al. [61,62] claim that this procedure enable fast deposition of CdS layer which assists in suppressing carrier recombination at the surface defects of QDs as well as facilitate easy attachment of QDs. Table 1 gives the summary of other groups who have used CBD technique to prepare the QD-sensitized photoanodes.

4.2. Successive ionic layer adsorption and reaction (SILAR)

The SILAR method is an extension of CBD technique. In this approach, cationic and anionic precursors are separately placed in two beakers or containers. TiO₂-coated electrode is dipped into the cationic precursor solution followed by rinsing and drying. Then it is dipped into the anionic precursor solution and completed with a final rinsing and drying. The two-step dipping is regarded as one deposition or SILAR cycle. The size of the deposited QDs can be controlled by the number of dip cycles. Within a cycle, each dipping period can be tailored to achieve the desired particle size growth. This method is designed such that the particle size will increase by one monolayer during a dip or immersion cycle. SILAR is a better approach when compared with CBD because of its shorter processing time and close stoichiometry formation as reported by Senthamilselvi et al. [63]. This method has been successfully utilized to synthesize CdS, CdSe

and CdTe onto TiO₂ film [64,65]. In a recent work by Barcelo et al. [66], SILAR has been shown to be advantageous when applied to ZnO mesoporous electrode due to its simplicity, homogenous QD distribution, high QD coverage degree and high IPCE values obtained in QDSSCs. The reader is referred to Table 1 for finding other research groups who have used the SILAR method to prepare QDs.

4.3. Surface attachment through molecular linkers for ex situ fabrication of QDs

For QD deposition via surface attachment, QDs are first pre-synthesized using capping agents. Capping agents are responsible in controlling the nanostructure shape, size and optical properties. Some examples of capping agent are mercaptopropionic acid (MPA), trioctylphosphine (TOP) and trioctylphosphine oxide (TOPO). Synthesis is performed in a vessel where the metal precursor (e.g. CdO) is heated before the inclusion of the next organometallic precursor (e.g. TOP-Se solution). Removing the heat will stop the growth reaction. In other words, QD size is controlled via temperature and also the capping agent concentration. One needs to monitor the growth by UV/Vis spectroscopy. Thus, a series of experiments should be performed to determine the size of QDs formed at a specific temperature and concentration of the capping agent. After the QDs are synthesized, the wide band gap semiconductor coated electrode is immersed in a solution containing bifunctional molecular linkers (in this case is the capping agent such as MPA). The immersion causes the functional group of the linker to attach onto the semiconductor surface while the other end of the functional group is available for QD attachment. Functional linking molecules assist in dispersing and stabilizing the QDs more effectively [67]. Subsequent immersion of the semiconductor electrode in a solution containing the QDs is needed to provide the adsorption of QDs onto the semiconductor film surface. The immersion may have to last from few hours to a few days, which is a very time consuming process as compared with the CBD or SILAR methods. During the QD solution immersion, ligand exchange takes place. Fig. 8 shows a schematic diagram of the process of molecular linking with QD and TiO₂ surface. Synthesis of CdX (X=S, Se, Te) using linker via wet chemical route has been first demonstrated by Murray et al. [68]. The other groups who have used this method for attaching QDs to the TiO₂ surface are listed in Table 1.

4.4. Other methods

Besides CBD, SILAR and linker assisted assembly, QDs can also be prepared and attached via direct adsorption (DA) or physisorption. In DA, QDs are attached on the wide band gap semiconductor film without the assistance of a molecular linker. DA may lead to a high degree of QD aggregation in addition to a low surface coverage [69,70]. However, QDs prepared by the DA method do give higher IPCE values in QDSSCs compared to those obtained with QDs prepared with molecular linker assisted adsorption as reported by Guijarro et al. [70]. In their work, an IPCE of 36% at the QD excitonic peak was observed.

A less explored technique has been reported in the review by Rühle et al. [21] is based on physisorption. Under this approach, bare semiconductor electrodes (e.g. TiO₂, ZnO) are dipped into solution of QDs up to 100 h. The literature on this approach is somewhat limited. However, photovoltaic cell performance of QDs attached via physisorption indicates a better result than the performance of cells with QDs prepared using molecular linker assisted adsorption.

In Wijayantha et al.'s [71] work, CdS QDSSCs were assembled via a pressing route where a polymer film was placed on the top of the

Table 1
Summary of QDSSCs with fill factors and power conversion efficiencies reported in recent literature.

No.	Author	Sensitizer	Wide band gap semiconductor	Electrolyte*	Counter electrode	QD deposition method	FF (%)	η (%)	Highlights	Ref.
1.	Vogel et al. (1990)	CdS	TiO ₂	KCl+Na ₂ S	Pt	SILAR	–	–	Photocurrent efficiency above 70% and photovoltage of 400 mV.	[18]
2.	Liu and Kamat (1993)	CdSe	TiO ₂	[Fe(CN) ₆] ^{3–/4–}	Pt	CBD	–	–	Improved photocurrent stability of CdSe film by coupling it with a TiO ₂ particulate film.	[33]
3.	Fang et al. (1997)	CdSe, ZnTcPc	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+Na ₂ SO ₄	Pt	CBD	–	–	First reported co-sensitization of TiO ₂ electrode by combination of CdSe particles and phthalocyanine.	[187]
4.	Peter et al. (2002)	CdS	TiO ₂	Na ₂ SO ₃	Pt	Linker	–	–	Sensitization of mesoporous TiO ₂ with CdS QDs with controllable absorption edge.	[188]
5.	Toyoda et al. (2003)	CdS	TiO ₂	KCl+Na ₂ S	Pt	SILAR	–	–	Increased photoelectrochemical current intensity with multiple CdS coating layer.	[64]
6.	Shen et al. (2004)	CdSe	TiO ₂	KCl+Na ₂ S	Pt	CBD	–	–	Dependency of photoelectrochemical currents of the photoanode on the microstructure and electron diffusion coefficient in the electrode.	[189]
7.	Toyoda et al. (2005)	CdSe	TiO ₂	KCl+Na ₂ S	Pt	CBD	–	–	Rutile-type content is advantageous to the photoelectrochemical properties of TiO ₂ electrodes.	[190]
8.	Nitsoo et al. (2006)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+NaOH	Pt	CBD	39.5	2.8	Improved cell parameters by selenization of the Cd-rich CdS layer with selenosulphate solution.	[191]
9.	Robel et al. (2006)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S	Pt	Linker	–	–	12% IPCE with TiO ₂ –CdSe composite as a photoanode.	[37]
10.	Shen et al. (2006)	CdSe	TiO ₂	KCl+Na ₂ S	Pt	CBD	–	–	45% IPCE in CdSe-sensitized TiO ₂ nanotubes and nanowires with increased electrode thickness.	[192]
11.	Chang and Lee (2007)	CdS	TiO ₂	LiI+I ₂ +DMPiI+TBP in MPN	Pt	CBD	63	1.84	Well-covered CdS on the surface of TiO ₂ mesopores via CdS-sensitized TiO ₂ using modified CBD in alcohol.	[193]
12.	Diguna et al. (2007)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S	Pt	CBD	50	2.7	Improved performance of CdSe-sensitized TiO ₂ inverse opal by surface modification with ZnS layer and fluoride ions.	[122]
13.	Lee et al. (2007)	CdSe, CdTe	TiO ₂	LiI+I ₂ in ACN	Pt	Linker	67	< 0.1	First reported quantitative cell tests using colloidal CdSe and CdTe QDs.	[84]
14.	Leschkies et al. (2007)	CdSe	ZnO	I ₂ +4TBP+LiI	Pt	Linker	30	0.40	Internal quantum efficiencies of 50–60% achieved with CdSe-sensitized ZnO nanowires.	[194]
15.	Lin et al. (2007)	CdS	TiO ₂	LiI+I ₂ +DMPiI+4TBP in MPN	Pt	Linker, CBD	60	1.35	Pre-assembled CdS QDs act as nucleation sites in the CBD process, forming nanofilm with an interfacial structure capable of inhibiting the recombination of injected electrons.	[195]
16.	Shen et al. (2007)	CdSe	SnO ₂	KCl+Na ₂ S	Pt	CBD	–	–	Larger IPCE peak values (~20%) and integrated area for the IPCE spectra obtained with nanostructured SnO ₂ electrodes.	[196]
17.	Kongkanand et al. (2008)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S	Pt	Linker	40	0.70	Tubular morphology of CdSe–TiO ₂ nanotube film in nanostructure-based solar cells.	[39]
18.	Lee et al. (2008)	CdSe	TiO ₂	[Co(o-phen) ₃] ^{2+/3+} in ACN/EC	Pt	Linker	61	1.17	Stable performance of cells up to 42 days under room light condition using cobalt complex as a hole transporting material.	[164]
19.	Lee et al. (2008)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Polysulfide	Pt	Linker	59	1.03	A co-sensitized TiO ₂ electrode by CdSe and Mg-doped CdSe QDs displayed a broad spectral response in the 500–600 nm wavelength.	[197]
20.	Lee et al. (2008)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Polysulfide	Pt	Linker	59	1.20	Co-sensitization of TiO ₂ nanotubes with two different sizes of CdSe QDs showed higher performance than single size sensitization.	[198]
21.	Lee et al. (2008)	CdS	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Pt	CBD	40	1.15	High IPCE of 80% obtained with polysulfide electrolyte in CdS-sensitized TiO ₂ electrode.	[166]
22.	Lee et al. (2008)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Pt	CBD	49	2.90	High efficiency in the CdSe-sensitized QD TiO ₂ films coupled with CdS and ZnS coated layer.	[123]
23.	Lopez-Luke et al. (2008)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S	Pt	Linker	27.7	0.84	Enhanced photoresponse in the near UV and visible region with CdSe QDs attached on nitrogen-doped TiO ₂ nanoparticle.	[150]
24.	Mora-Sero et al. (2008)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+NaOH	Pt	Linker	43	0.40	IPCE value increased by 5–6 fold with the use of cysteine as functional linker between CdSe QDs and TiO ₂ .	[110]
25.	Shen et al. (2008)	CdS	TiO ₂	LiI+I ₂ +DMPiI+TBP in MPN	Pt	Linker	70	0.30	A well-covered QDs layer obtained from the adsorption of MSA-modified CdS QDs onto TiO ₂ films using the carboxylic acid/TiO ₂ interaction.	[42]
26.	Shen et al. (2008)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S	Pt	CBD	31	2.02	Improved photovoltaic properties with ZnS modified CdSe-sensitized TiO ₂ surface.	[124]

27.	Tachibana et al. (2008)	CdS	TiO ₂	[Fe(CN) ₆] ^{3-/-4-}	Pt	SILAR	60	1.00	Improved performance with a dense TiO ₂ blocking layer on an FTO/TiO ₂ mesoporous film.	[121]
28.	Bang and Kamat (2009)	CdSe, CdTe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S	Pt	Linker	-	-	Degradation of CdTe due to failure to scavenge photogenerated holes by a sulfide redox couple.	[167]
29.	Chen et al. (2009)	CdSe	ZnO	Polysulfide	Pt	Linker	34	0.45	Higher efficiency achieved with a layered structure of ZnO nanorods at the bottom and nanoflower on top than ZnO nanorods array alone.	[199]
30.	Chen et al. (2009)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S	Pt	Linker	38.4	0.78	Lower efficiency but higher stability for QDSSCs with OA-capped CdSe photoanode.	[200]
31.	Chen et al. (2009)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Lil + I ₂ + TBP + HMII in MAN	Pt	Linker	56.3	1.19	Improved performance of QDSSC due to higher loading and good coverage of QDs on TiO ₂ film with optimal pH value at 7.	[111]
32.	Fan et al. (2009)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Pt	CBD	43	3.21	A highly efficient CdSe QDSSC prepared by a seed growing CBD process followed by addition of a ZnS film with post-sintering process to enforce the interface connection.	[201]
33.	Farrow and Kamat (2009)	CdSe	Carbon nanotube	Na ₂ S	Pt	Linker	-	< 0.10	Increased photocurrent with addition of stacked-cup carbon nanotubes to the photoanode due to ultrafast electron transfer to the nanotubes.	[130]
34.	Gao et al. (2009)	CdTe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S	Pt	Linker	-	-	Improved photon response of CdTe-sensitized TiO ₂ nanotubes compared to plain TiO ₂ nanotubes film.	[202]
35.	Jimenez et al. (2009)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+NaOH	Cu ₂ S	DA	48	1.83	Improved efficiency of CdSe QDSSC prepared by DA with ZnS treatment and Cu ₂ S used as CE.	[69]
36.	Guijarro et al. (2009)	CdSe	TiO ₂	N ₂ purged Na ₂ SO ₃	Pt	Linker, DA	-	-	A high degree of QD aggregation and IPCE value with CdSe-sensitized TiO ₂ prepared by DA.	[70]
37.	Hossain et al. (2009)	CdS	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S	Pt	CBD	26	1.13	Better photocurrent in CdSe-sensitized TiO ₂ nanoparticles prepared by ammonia-free CBD with 12 min deposition time.	[203]
38.	Lan et al. (2009)	CdTe	TiO ₂	Lil + I ₂ in EMISCN	Pt	Linker	66	2.02	High efficiency obtained from the preparation of CdTe QDSSC with a simple heating process.	[204]
39.	Lee et al. (2009)	CdS, PbS	TiO ₂	[Co(o-phen) ₃] ^{2+/3+} in ACN/EC	Pt	SILAR	-	1.13 ^a	Cobalt complex as a redox couple was more efficient in generating photocurrents than Na ₂ S.	[165]
40.	Lee et al. (2009)	CdSe, CdTe	TiO ₂	[Co(o-phen) ₃] ^{2+/3+} in ACN/ EC	Pt	SILAR	78	4.18	Overall conversion efficiency exceeding 4% obtained with CdTe-terminated CdSe QDSSC.	[65]
41.	Lee et al. (2009)	CdS	ZnO	Lil + I ₂ in ACN	Pt	CBD	30	0.54	The morphology of the nanorods provides a direct pathway for the electrons from QDs to the photoanode.	[205]
42.	Lee and Lo (2009)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Au	CBD	49.0	4.22	High efficiency with cascade structure of CdS/CdSe QDs used as co-sensitizers where CdS was placed between CdSe and TiO ₂ .	[93]
43.	Sudhagar et al. (2009)	CdS:CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S	Pt	CBD	42.3	2.69	Coupled CdS:CdSe QD-sensitized TiO ₂ nanofibres provides a well-occupation of the pores by QDs and deeper electrolyte penetration.	[206]
44.	Sudhagar et al. (2009)	CdS	TiO ₂	Polysulfide	Pt	CBD	49.6	1.28	Better interconnectivity among spheroidal particles and the mesoporous layer in CdS-sensitized TiO ₂ nanospheroidal solar cells.	[207]
45.	Barea et al. (2010)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+NaOH	Pt	CBD	34	1.60	Increased photovoltaic performance by surface treatment of CdSe-sensitized TiO ₂ with ZnS coating and molecular dipoles grafting.	[208]
46.	Chen et al. (2010)	CdS	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+Na ₂ SO ₃	Pt	CBD	70	1.91	Improved efficiency by incorporating CdS QDs into TiO ₂ nanorod array.	[132]
47.	Chen et al. (2010)	CdSe	Carbon nanotube+ZnO	Na ₂ S+S	Pt	Linker	57.5	1.46	An improved QDSSC based on vertically aligned carbon nanotube arrays coated with ZnO nanorods.	[140]
48.	Chen et al. (2010)	CdS, CdSe	ZnO	Na ₂ S+S	Pt	CBD	41.5	1.42	Broader light absorption range and better coverage of QDs on ZnO nanowires in CdS and CdSe co-sensitized ZnO nanowire.	[209]
49.	Chong et al. (2010)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl	Au	SILAR	49	2.65	High efficiency of CdSe-sensitized TiO ₂ by additional heat annealing which improved the interfacial and intra-connection among CdSe QDs.	[178]
50.	Deng et al. (2010)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S	Cu ₂ S/C	CBD	58.1	3.08	Superior performance of QDSSC with nano-Cu ₂ S/C composite CE.	[182]
51.	Gonzalez-Pedro et al. (2010)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+NaOH	Cu ₂ S	SILAR	51	3.84	High efficiency of CdSe-sensitized TiO ₂ with ZnS coating attributed to QDs in overcoming the photocurrent limit (or recombination).	[23]
52.	Guijarro et al. (2010)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+NaOH	Cu ₂ S	DA, Linker	58	1.49	Fast electron injection in CdSe-sensitized TiO ₂ prepared by DA. DA process also yielded the slowest recombination.	[210]
53.	Huang et al. (2010)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S	Cu ₂ S	CBD	58	3.18	Fibrous QDSSC prepared from CdSe-sensitized TiO ₂ nanotubes on Ti wire with a ZnS passivation layer.	[211]
54.	Lee et al. (2010)	CdSe, Z907Na	TiO ₂	[Co(o-phen) ₃] ^{2+/3+} in ACN/EC	Pt	SILAR	72	4.76	Effective redox couple based on cobalt complexes.	[106]
55.		CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂		Pt	SILAR	49	3.90	Co-sensitization of CdS, CdSe and ZnS was able to increase the QDSSC performance.	[98]

Table 1 (continued)

No.	Author	Sensitizer	Wide band gap semiconductor	Electrolyte*	Counter electrode	QD deposition method	FF (%)	η (%)	Highlights	Ref.
56.	Lee et al. (2010)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Pt	SILAR	36	1.14	CdS/CdSe core/shell QDs sensitized on TiO ₂ nanowires array at optimal three cycles deposition.	[212]
57.	Li et al. (2010)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Pt	SILAR, CBD	41	2.05	Improved CdS/CdSe QDs co-sensitized solar cells obtained with the application of SiO ₂ coating.	[126]
58.	Liu et al. (2010)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl	Pt	SILAR, CBD	35	1.70	Facile electrophoretic deposition technique for fabrication of QDSSC.	[72]
59.	Salant et al. (2010)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KOH	Pt	Electrophoretic CBD	38.3	4.15	QDSSC prepared by covering ZnO nanowires with CdS shell (which reduced the charge recombination) and then sensitized with CdSe QDs.	[179]
60.	Seol et al. (2010)	CdS, CdSe	ZnO	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Au	CBD	53	1.80	A low-cost CdSe QDSSC prepared without using transparent conductive glass and Pt.	[213]
61.	Shen et al. (2010)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S	Cu ₂ S	CBD	62	2.20	High efficiency of QDSSC incorporating CdHgTe and CdTe attributed to better electron transfer efficiency in the system.	[214]
62.	Yang and Chang (2010)	CdHgTe, CdTe	TiO ₂	LiI+I ₂ in EMImSCN	Pt	Linker	50.5	3.40	High efficiency of QDSSC incorporating CdHgTe and CdTe attributed to better electron transfer efficiency in the system.	[214]
63.	Yang et al. (2010)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	CoS	CBD	60.1	4.00	Low-cost CoS CE promotes the reduction action of polysulfide at the CE-electrolyte interface.	[183]
64.	Yu et al. (2010)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S based on PAM-MBA hydrogel	Cu ₂ S	CBD	58	1.47	Improved stability of device with polysulfide electrolyte based on PAM-MBA hydrogel.	[173]
65.	Zhang et al. (2010)	CdS	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S	Carbon	CBD	41	2.38	CdS-sensitized solar cells employing carbon as CE presented a higher efficiency than those with Pt CE.	[174]
66.	Zhu et al. (2010)	CdS	Zn–TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Au	SILAR	41	1.62	High efficiency of QDSSCs based on Zn-doped TiO ₂ film photoanode, which is attributed to the reduction of electron recombination and the enhancement of electron transport.	[144]
67.	Zhu et al. (2010)	CdS	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Au	SILAR	35	1.44	Higher efficiency of QDSSC based on Au-doped FTO attributed to the easier transport of excited electrons and the inhibition of charge recombination in the Au layer.	[145]
68.	Zhu et al. (2010)	CdS	Graphene+TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Au	SILAR	28	1.16	CdS QDSSC incorporating graphene in TiO ₂ photoanode showed better efficiency than without graphene which is attributed to the enhancement of electron transport and reduction of the electron recombination.	[146]
69.	Chen et al. (2011)	CdS	ZnO	Na ₂ S+S	Pt	SILAR	55.8	1.26	High efficiency of CdS QDs-sensitized multi-layer porous ZnO nanosheets.	[215]
70.	Chen et al. (2011)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+NaOH	Pt	Linker	47.4	0.74	Improved performance of QDSSC based on two sizes of CdSe QDs (broader spectrum absorption range and longer electron lifetime).	[88]
71.	Chen et al. (2011)	CdSe	ZnO	I ₂ +LiI+TBP+HMII in MAN	Pt	Electrophoretic Linker	–	–	Fabricated flexible QDSSCs by CdSe QDs deposited on ZnO nanorods.	[216]
72.	Chen et al. (2011)	CdSe	TiO ₂	CuSCN	C	Linker	–	–	CdSe QDSSC with CuSCN as solid-state electrolyte where hydrolyzate of MPTMS forms an insulating barrier layer for reduction of recombination.	[217]
73.	Chou et al. (2011)	CdS	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O with GuSCN+SiO ₂	Au	SILAR	50	2.01	High efficiency of QDSSC with polystyrene-modified TiO ₂ film and guanidine thiocyanate (GuSCN) additive in the electrolyte.	[169]
74.	Fang et al. (2011)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Carbon	CBD	60	4.81	CdS QDSSC with CuSCN as solid-state electrolyte where hydrolyzate of MPTMS forms an insulating barrier layer for reduction of recombination.	[175]
75.	Greenwald et al. (2011)	CdS, CdSe	ZrO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+NaOH	Pb/PbS	CBD, SILAR	63	–	Cell with carbon nanofibers as CE demonstrated a high catalytic activity towards the reduction of electrolyte.	[218]
76.	Hossain et al. (2011)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S	Pt	CBD	49.5	1.56	A QDSSC based on a porous ZrO ₂ film. Electron injection was observed from photo-excited QDs into the ZrO ₂ , even though with much higher conduction band edge of bulk ZrO ₂ .	[87]
77.	Huang et al. (2011)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S	Cu ₂ S	CBD	59.8	3.47	Reported solar cell based on bubble-like CdSe nanocluster sensitized on TiO ₂ nanotube array.	[177]
78.	Jovanovski et al. (2011)	CdSe	TiO ₂	S ²⁻ /S _n ²⁻ -based ionic liquid	Pt	SILAR	32	1.86	Fabrication of flexible electrode of CdS/CdSe QDSSC.	[170]
79.	Lai and Chou (2011)	CdSe	–	Na ₂ S+S in methanol/H ₂ O	Pt	CBD	26	1.25	First reported sulfide/polysulfide-based ionic liquid electrolyte for CdSe QDSSC.	[160]
80.	Lee et al. (2011)	CdS	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Pt	SPD	36.3	1.71	A facile and surfactant free CBD method.	[74]

80.	Li et al. (2011)	CdS	TiO ₂	Polysulfide in MPN	Pt	CBD	89	3.20	An efficient and non-corrosive polysulfide electrolyte for CdS linked to TiO ₂ via TGA.	[219]
81.	Luan et al. (2011)	CdS, CdSe	ZnO	LiI + I ₂ + DMPIL in ACN	Pt	Linker	55	~1.00	QDSSC performance based on ZnO nanorod with Al ₂ O ₃ layer prior to QD anchoring acts as barrier inhibiting electron recombination.	[92]
82.	Qian et al. (2011)	CdS	TiO ₂	P3HT in chlorobenzene	Au	SILAR	50	1.42	Improved performance of CdS QDSSC using P3HT as the hole conductor.	[172]
83.	Radich et al. (2011)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S + S	Cu ₂ S-RGO	SILAR	46	4.40	Better fill factor obtained with QDSSC using Cu ₂ S-RGO composite as counter electrode.	[184]
84.	Samadpour et al. (2011)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S + S + NaOH	Cu ₂ S	SILAR	58	3.93	Improved efficiency by fluorine treatment on photoanode.	[127]
85.	Sudhagar et al. (2011)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S + S	Carbon	CBD	50	1.75	High efficiency of QDSSC using mesocellular carbon foam as CE due to enhanced catalytic activity.	[176]
86.	Sun et al. (2011)	CdSe	Graphene	LiI + I ₂ + TBP in ACN	Pt	CBD	36.9	0.76	Graphene network as conducting scaffold to capture and transport photoinduced charge carriers.	[220]
87.	Yeh et al. (2011)	CdS	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S + S + KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	PEDOT	SILAR	50	1.35	High efficiency QDSSC due to high electrocatalytic activity of PEDOT as CE.	[185]
88.	Yu et al. (2011)	CdS, CdTe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S + S + NaOH in methanol/H ₂ O	Au	Linker + CBD	41	3.80	High efficiency of CdTe/CdS QDSSCs prepared by linker assisted CBD.	[180]
89.	Zeng et al. (2011)	CdS	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S + S	Pt	CBD	47	1.27	Fabrication of CdS QDSSC using free-standing single-crystalline rutile TiO ₂ nanorod arrays.	[135]
90.	Zewdu et al. (2011)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S + S + KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Au	SILAR	~50	3.60	Transient absorption spectroscopy data in the presence of the polysulfide electrolyte indicated regeneration not as efficient as cell using dye sensitizer and iodide based redox couple.	[181]
91.	Zhang et al. (2011)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S + S	Cu ₂ S	CBD	63	4.92	Introduction of large size TiO ₂ particles into the photoanode for wider pore size distribution as in double-layer photoanodic structure.	[153]
92.	Zhu et al. (2011)	CdS	ZnO	Na ₂ S + S + KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Au	SPD	33	1.54	Efficient CdS QDSSC based on ZnO photoanode fabricated by using ultrasonic spray pyrolysis.	[75]
93.	Zhu et al. (2011)	CdS	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S + S + KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Au	CBD – microwave assisted	38	1.03	Improved short circuit current density and efficiency in QDSSC with QDs prepared using microwave assisted CBD.	[61]
94.	Zhu et al. (2011)	CdS	TiO ₂ , ZnO	Na ₂ S + S + KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Au	SILAR	35	1.56	Reduction of charge recombination by ZnO passivation layer in QDSSC based on cascade structure of TiO ₂ /ZnO/CdS.	[152]
95.	Zhu et al. (2011)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S + S + KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Pt	Microwave-assisted CBD	33.7	3.06	Direct and rapid deposition of QDs with good contact forming between QDs and TiO ₂ films via microwave-assisted CBD.	[62]
96.	Barcelo et al. (2012)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Quaterthiophene	pTPA	DA	–	0.34	DA CdSe electrode yields better result with high V _{OC} using quarterthiophene hole conductor.	[221]
97.	Cheng et al. (2012)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S + Na ₂ SO ₃	Pt	SILAR	58	2.41	High performance of CdS/CdSe-sensitized solar cell using TiO ₂ nanotubes with nanowires.	[99]
98.	Hossain et al. (2012)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S + S + NaOH	Cu ₂ S	SILAR	57	5.21	The presence of CdS buffer layer impeded the injection of electrons from CdSe to TiO ₂ and accelerates charge recombination at the TiO ₂ /sensitizer interface. Obtained high efficiency with scattering layer in CdSe QDSSC.	[155]
99.	Jang et al. (2012)	CdS	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S + S + KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Pt	SILAR	43	1.33	Used liquid CO ₂ coating for deposition of CdS QDs on mesoporous TiO ₂ films. CdS QDs were uniformly deposited throughout TiO ₂ film.	[222]
100.	Jung et al. (2012)	CdS	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S + S + KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Pt	SILAR	44.8	1.72	Improvement of CdS QDSSC by ZnS overlayers which act as efficient energy barrier at interface, leading to the suppression of recombination from the large CdS QD to the electrolyte.	[223]
101.	Lai et al. (2012)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S + S + KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Pt	SILAR, CBD	33	2.74	Improved QDSSC with annealed TiO ₂ nanotube arrays.	[224]
102.	Ning et al. (2012)	CdS, ZnSe	TiO ₂	Thiourea-based organic redox couple	Pt	Linker	58	0.86	Core/shell ZnSe/CdS type-II QDs give higher electron injection than CdS/ZnSe QDs in QDSSC using a organic based electrolyte.	[225]
103.	Rawal et al. (2012)	CdS, CdSe	ZnO	Na ₂ S + S + KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Pt	CBD	37	1.33	Highly uniform film-like structure of deposited CdS on ZnO nanorods for the application in CdS/CdSe QDSSC.	[226]
104.	Salant et al. (2012)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Polysulfide	PbS	Electrophoretic	49	2.70	Higher performance of quantum rod-sensitized solar cell compared to the usual QDSSC.	[227]
105.	Santra and Kamat (2012)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S + S	Cu ₂ S - RGO	SILAR	47	5.42	Highest efficiency reported to date with Mn-doped-CdS/CdSe QDSSC.	[112]
106.	Shu et al. (2012)	CdSe _x S _(1-x) , CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S + S + KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Pt	SILAR	64	3.67	QDSSC with nitrogen-doped TiO ₂ spheres showed improved performance due to efficient electron transport, higher QD loading and enhanced light scattering.	[151]

Table 1 (continued)

No.	Author	Sensitizer	Wide band gap semiconductor	Electrolyte*	Counter electrode	QD deposition method	FF (%)	η (%)	Highlights	Ref.
107.	Song et al. (2012)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Pt	Linker	33.8	1.97	In situ hydrothermal method to assemble aqueous TGA-capped CdSe QDs onto TiO ₂ films with better control over QD size.	[228]
108.	Tian et al. (2012)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S	Cu ₂ S	SILAR, CBD	55	4.62	Optimum TiO ₂ film thickness of 11 μ m produced the highest efficiency.	[154]
109.	Wang et al. (2012)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+NaOH	Cu ₂ S	Linker	46	2.21	In situ deposition method to directly assemble aqueous TGA capped CdSe colloidal QDs within TiO ₂ films by a low-temperature hydrothermal route.	[229]
110.	Wang et al. (2012)	CdS	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Pt	SILAR	–	2.54	High efficiency CdS QDSSC with CdS QD deposited onto TiO ₂ nanorod using ultrasound assisted SILAR.	[136]
111.	Yu et al. (2012)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Cu ₂ S	Linker-assisted CBD	55	4.21	High efficiency obtained in a QDSSC with co-sensitization of CdS, CdSe and ZnS layer and annealed at 400 °C.	[129]
112.	Zhang et al. (2012)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Pt	SILAR	47	2.26	Higher deposition cycles of CdSe has a negative effect for the generation and collection of photoelectron while higher amount of CdS and CdSe caused a downward displacement of TiO ₂ CB.	[230]
113.	Zhang et al. (2012)	CdS, CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S	Cu ₂ S	CBD	62	4.61	Highly efficient CdS/CdSe QDSSC with TiCl ₄ treated TiO ₂ nanotubes array. TiO ₂ nanotubes were fabricated by sol–gel assisted template process.	[156]
114.	Zhao et al. (2012)	CdSe	TiO ₂	Na ₂ S+S+KCl in methanol/H ₂ O	Pt	CBD	49.4	2.13	Improved performance of CdSe QDSSC by TiCl ₄ treatment of QD-sensitized electrode.	[157]

* Note: Electrolytes are aqueous solutions unless otherwise stated.

a Value is for CdS QDSSC at 9.4% sun intensity.

CdS deposited TiO₂ layer, and the electrode was subsequently pressed between two plates. The photoanode prepared via the pressing route has a tendency of experiencing partial loss or damage of the CdS layer. This method may also create regions that are inaccessible to the redox electrolyte. Nevertheless, the pressing route according to the authors gives an alternative low cost method for the preparation of QD-sensitized photoelectrodes.

Electrophoretic deposition, a new deposition technique which was used recently by Salant et al. [72] in 2010 has been able to generate high power conversion efficiency in CdSe-sensitized QDSSCs. The reported efficiency of 1.7% at 1 sun was higher than those of the cells with QDs prepared with a linker technique. Interestingly, the absorbed photon to electron conversion efficiencies is not size dependent, which means that efficient electron injection can take place for larger QD sizes. Poulou et al. [73] in 2012 have adopted a combination method of functional linker with electrophoretic deposition to fabricate CdSe QDs. This method has the advantage of obtaining better QD deposition onto TiO₂ layers with reduced deposition time. This opens an alternative route for efficient QD deposition.

QDs can also be prepared via spray pyrolysis deposition (SPD) [74–76]. In the case of a CdS QDSSC reported by Lee et al., CdS QD was deposited onto the TiO₂ layer via SPD using solution mixture of cadmium chloride and thiourea [74]. The deposited CdS layer had a porous structure. The photoelectrode was then subjected to washing to remove the excess cadmium chloride. The performance of the QDSSC prepared by this technique is comparable with those of the cells prepared by other existing techniques. The performance was mainly attributed to the large surface area of the formed CdS in contact with the electrolyte. As high temperature of the order of above 400 °C is required and the performance of QDSSCs is also not improved very much, this method is not used by many researchers. Other new alternative methods include electro-spray technique and spin-coating-based SILAR [77,78]. In electro-spray technique, QDs suspension is prepared and loaded in a syringe. A syringe pump feed the suspension through the needle at a constant flow rate. High voltage is applied to the needle so that a cone-jet is formed at the needle outlet. QDs suspension is then sprayed onto the TiO₂ film which is set perpendicular to the needle. This method is very similar to the electro-spinning method. In spin-coating-based SILAR, both anionic and cationic precursors are dropped onto the TiO₂ film surface. The sample is then spin-coated without rinsing and drying process. This process is repeated few times until a desired QD layer is formed. Spin-coating-based method proves to be simple and fast as compared with normal SILAR method. However, much optimization work is needed to obtain a comparable cell performance with the cell containing QDs prepared from normal SILAR method.

5. Approaches for improving QDSSC performance

In view of the low energy conversion efficiency achieved by Cd chalcogenide QDSSCs (largely below 5%), a systematic approach is needed to modify the architecture of the QDSSC assembly for a better efficiency yield. The main approaches that most of the researchers focused on are materials selection and materials engineering. This covers the types of QD material used and their sizes, choices of electron conductor for photoanode, counter electrode materials, electrolyte, and the surface engineering of the materials. In this review, more than 150 articles pertaining to Cd chalcogenide QDSSCs have been reviewed. Some of the significant results and reports from these articles are summarized in Table 1 for quick and easy comparison among the QDSSCs that have been reported. The list displayed in Table 1 is by no means

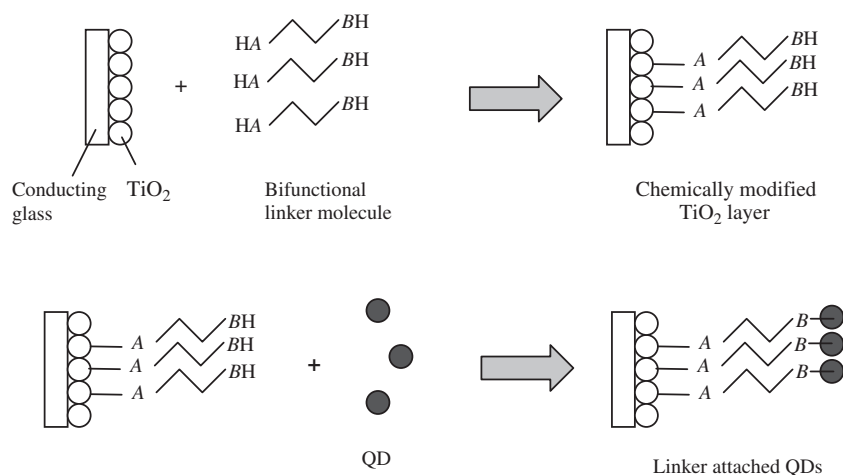


Fig. 8. Linking QDs to TiO_2 surface with a bifunctional molecular linker.

exhaustive. The following sections discuss some of the notable results pertaining to improving QDSSCs performance.

5.1. Type of QD sensitizers and their sizes

QDs employed in QDSSCs as sensitizers include but not limited to CuInS_2 [79], PbS [80], InP [32], InAs [81], Ag_2S [82,83], CdS [64], CdSe [33], CdTe [84] and ZnSe [85]. Among these, Cd chalcogenide QDs have been considered as a better choice as they are more stable in QDSSCs although they may degrade upon visible illumination [86]. However, the degradation is not as severe as PbS QDs. CdS QDs are reported to be relatively more stable.

By engineering the morphology of the QD surface, there is a possibility of gaining ground breaking improvement in photovoltaic performance. One example is the sensitization of the TiO_2 layer with bubble-like QDs. Hossain et al. have used the CBD method to fabricate such CdSe QDs and used them to obtain an efficiency of 1.56% in a QDSSC arrangement. [87]. In their work, the improvement observed in the performance of the cell was mainly attributed to the increase in the size of the QDs and the surface area covered by them on the photoelectrode. Furthermore, the nanotube form of the TiO_2 enabled more QDs coverage. The performance of the cell containing bubble like QDs on such nanotubes (efficiency of 1.56%) was reported to be better compared to the QDSSC using TiO_2 nanotube structure with the usual QDs deposition.

On the other hand, QDSSCs prepared with two or more sizes of QDs can improve the cell performance as the I_{sc} and fill factor are expected to be significantly enhanced. The use of two different sizes of CdSe QDs has shown an improved performance compared to that of a cell with a single sized QDs. Chen et al. [88] have used two different sizes of CdSe QDs in a QDSSC. The combination of 2.5 nm and 3.5 nm QDs in a CdSe QDCC produced an efficiency of 1.26% whereas the efficiency of the cell with QDs of single size was below 1%. This improvement in the former cell may have been due to broader light absorption range as well as longer electron lifetime. It could also be deduced that charge recombination at the interface is minimized with the application of two or more sizes of CdSe QDs.

Another approach to improve QDSSCs performance is to couple several QD nanoparticles to form a core/shell structure. Coupling two types of nanoparticles as core/shell or multi shell structure can increase the photoelectrochemical performance remarkably as compared with bare nanoparticle QDs. This was shown in Sung et al. [89] work in which they have fabricated QDSSC using $\text{CdS}_x\text{Se}_{(1-x)}$ as QDs with core/shell structure. As the ratio of Se was increased in the multi

shell structure of $\text{CdS}/\text{CdSSe}/\text{CdSe}$, higher photocurrent density was observed in QDSSCs made with them. In another example, QDSSCs formed with CdSe/CdS core/shell nanocrystals were found to produce superior performance in comparison to the QDSSCs with highly luminescent CdSe plain core nanocrystals as reported by Li et al. [90]. With CdSe/CdS core/shell structure, improvement in photoluminescence quantum yield was observed. Improvements in short-circuit current density were also observed in CdTe/CdS and CdS/CdSe core/shell solar cell structures [91–93]. Hence, it can be concluded that one type of QDs alone cannot bring up the energy conversion efficiency of QDSSCs to a higher level. The improvement is also influenced by the choice of semiconductor material, core size and shell thickness. Dworak et al. reported that, through the observation from femtosecond absorption spectroscopy, the rate of the interfacial electron transfer reaction depends on CdS shell thickness. With lower CdS shell thickness, the transfer rate is better [94].

A thin coating of amorphous TiO_2 mesoporous layer on the CdS QD layer can improve the performance and photostability of the QDSSCs as shown in Shalom et al.'s work [95]. The TiO_2 coating layer actually assists in passivating the QD surface state and reduces the recombination of electrons from the QDs and TiO_2 into the electrolyte solution. Shalom et al. reported an efficiency of 1.24% in a CdS QDSSC with an amorphous TiO_2 coating on the QDs compared to 0.13% without this coating, an increase of more than 900%. It is also interesting to note that the cell was tested with iodine/iodide electrolyte instead of the usual polysulfide electrolyte. When coupled with other QDs, Cd chalcogenide can serve as a coating layer as well as a stabilizer for the solar cell behavior. This was demonstrated in PbS QDSSCs employing a CdS coating layer [96]. With CdS coating the PbS QD, the observed photocurrent density in a QDSSC increased from 4 mA cm^{-2} to 11 mA cm^{-2} , a 175% increase. The efficiency of the cell with the CdS coating was 2.21% under 1 sun. The CdS QDs light-absorbing layer also acts as a blocking layer for reducing the recombination in QDSSCs. Essentially, the CdS coating expands the absorption spectra of the QDs while scavenging the photogenerated holes in the valence band of the QDs in order to promote the charge separation [97]. Lately, better results reported on QDSSCs prepared using multilayered QDs structure. In Lee et al.'s [98] work, multilayered QDs of $\text{CdS}/\text{CdSe}/\text{ZnS}$ were fabricated using the SILAR method. The highest QDSSC efficiency achieved was 3.90% using this arrangement. This performance is far better than that of the cell with a single QD layer arrangement which gave efficiencies of only 0.48% and 2.23% for CdS and CdSe QDSSC respectively. The improved performance is attributed to the enhanced charge separation at the main absorbing QD layer as a result of addition of under layers and over layers to the main absorbing QD layer. In another development,

Cheng et al. have developed multilayered QDs of CdS/CdSe/ZnS to sensitize TiO₂ in the form of nanowires [99]. Although the efficiency obtained (2.41%) is not as high as in Lee et al.'s work, their concept could pave way for a possible further improvement due to high surface area of the TiO₂ nanowires.

Dye sensitizers used in DSSC could lift up the solar cell performance when coupled with QDs sensitizers. Improvement of electron extraction from QDs into the wide band gap semiconductor was observed when N3 dye was deposited on top of the QDs layer [100,101]. This is due to efficient hole transfer from the valence band of the excited QDs to the ground state of the N3 dye molecules which yields improvement in the cell performance and stability. Beside the N3 dye, Fan et al. [102] have showed that co-sensitizing the TiO₂ layer with CdSe QDs and other organic dyes is able to yield improvement on the cell performance too. However, the cell performance is still lagging behind that of the best DSSC system reported. Nevertheless, this approach opens up an alternative way for new solar cell design. Other notable works are coupling QDs with near-infrared red absorbing dye for panchromatic harvesting light system [103,104]. Such co-sensitization with CdS QD and squaraine dye has yielded an efficiency of 3.14% in a QDSSC [104]. Other examples of coupling QDs and dye for co-sensitization in solar cells which give higher power conversion efficiencies have also been reported in the recent literature [105–107]. Lee et al. [106] have reported an excellent performance with 4.76% efficiency in a QDSSC with co-sensitizers of CdSe and Z907Na dye on the TiO₂ film. The team has used cobalt-based electrolyte which could have been another reason for the better performance and stability of the cell. Meanwhile, Ling et al. [108] have demonstrated a hybrid-sensitized solar cell consisting of TiO₂ spongy structure sensitized with CdS and N3 dye. There was a 100% increase in efficiency in the co-sensitized device compared with that of the CdS QDSSC. The light conversion process is enhanced with the modified porous architecture of TiO₂ and through improved penetration of the electrolyte into the photoanode. In another development, Shalom et al. [109] have showed a new co-sensitization structure with the application of an amorphous TiO₂ layer between the QD and dye layers. Utilizing such two sensitizing layers, the team observed a 250% increase in efficiency compared to that of a QD monolayer cell.

The use of functional linkers to attach QD sensitizers plays an important role which affects the end result of the solar cell performance [70,110]. Mora-Seo et al. [110] have reported a 5–6 fold increase in IPCE value with the use of cysteine as a functional linker between CdSe QDs and TiO₂ layer. Even the pH condition of the chemical solution used during QD loading with functional linkers can also play a role in determining QDSSCs' performance [40,111]. Under an optimum pH value of the solution, large loading and better coverage of QDs on the wide band gap semiconductor film can be realized which eventually yield a better efficiency and IPCE value. Chen et al. [111] have reported that higher loading and good QD coverage on TiO₂ was obtained in study with optimal pH value of 7.

Most recently, Santra et al. have fabricated a high efficiency QDSSC with Mn doping. They have obtained a cell efficiency of 5.42% using Mn-doped-CdS/CdSe QDs. This is by far the highest efficiency reported for Cd chalcogenide QDSSCs [112]. In this structure, Mn dopant creates an electronic state in the midgap region of the CdS/CdSe QD. In other words, there is a midgap level within the main QD band gap. This midgap state acts as an electron trap and prevents charge recombination with holes and/or oxidized electrolyte. Further study is needed to understand the structure of this QDSSC towards performance improvement.

5.2. Type and surface morphology of the working electrode

The preparation route of QDs plays an important role in QDSSCs as it indirectly affects the final outcome of the solar cell performance. As discussed in Section 4, each QD fabrication route

yields a different range of performance although there is no specific range applicable to each fabrication method. It is also noted that the surface state of QDs contribute to the density of states distribution which suggests that QDs have a significant role in the recombination process [113]. Therefore, optimization should consider the QD arrangement and the surface states which depend on the QD fabrication process and surface treatment.

QDs prepared in situ by CBD process has significantly higher QDs loading on photoanodes. Nevertheless the maximum efficiency achieved by CBD processed QDs is only 10% higher than that obtained with pre-synthesized QDs (DA or linker attachment) [114,115]. In a recent work by Guijarro et al. [116], QDSSCs based on colloids (DA, linker attachment) have the potential of being superior to those prepared by CBD or SILAR as faster recombination was observed in the latter case. Recombination of electron from the photoanode to electrolyte is not desirable. Therefore, a delayed or reduced recombination rate is favorable. When comparing between DA and linker attachment, faster electron injection from QDs into TiO₂ layer was observed in QDs deposited by DA [117]. Thus, larger photocurrent is expected for DA processed QDs.

In the SILAR process, every additional dipping cycle will increase the size of the QD layers on the photoanode. The QD size for optimum QDSSC performance is usually reached with few dipping cycles. SILAR deposition appears to give better QD distribution throughout the TiO₂ layer. This is possible due to easy access of ionic precursors to the deeper regions of the film. However, the rate of the photogenerated electron injection from the QDs to the wide band gap semiconductor decreases with the additional deposition cycles [116]. As such, the efficiency gets saturated as the number of SILAR cycle increases. This is justified by the saturation of the QDs on the oxide surface as the deposition cycles are increased. The excessive layers will then become blocking layers instead.

In linker assisted attachment of QDs, different linkers affect the electron injection and/or recombination at the QD/electrolyte interface. For example, the influence of cysteine adsorption on the performance of CdSe QDSSC has been reported by Xu et al. [118]. Electron recombination at the interface between the photoanode and electrolyte has been found to reduce with a large amount of adsorbed cysteine on the TiO₂ electrode's surface.

In general, QDs produced by CBD appear to give higher cell performance than the QDs produced with SILAR technique. The open-circuit voltage appears to be higher as reported by Samadpour et al. [119]. This is due to higher recombination resistance for electrodes sensitized using the CBD method. However, the SILAR method has the advantage of covering large areas in electrodes having ordered TiO₂ nanostructures. Thus, for high surface area structure such as TiO₂ nanotubes, the SILAR method should be considered. The limitation of the photoanodes prepared by SILAR can be mitigated by effective passivation of the photoanode surface.

Ruhle et al. [120] have showed the importance of suppressing the recombination at the photoanode with a compact TiO₂ layer on the ITO/FTO surface. With the presence of such a compact TiO₂ layer, the efficiency of CdSe QDSSC increased to almost 100%, depending on the compact layer thickness. Similar improvement was also observed in a CdS QDSSC when a compact TiO₂ layer was present between the conducting glass and mesoporous TiO₂ film [121]. Coating QDs with a protective ZnS layer has been showed to be capable of preventing electron leakage from the QDs into the electrolyte (in other words, it suppresses the charge recombination at the QD–electrolyte interface) [122–124]. In most QDSSCs, QDs coated with ZnS layer showed an improvement in efficiencies of at least 60% compared to the efficiencies obtained with non-passivated QDs (0.9%–1.5% in Diguna et al.'s work [122]; 1.4%–

2.9% in Lee et al.'s work [123]; 1.12%–2.02% in Shen et al.'s work [124]. In another recent work by Guijarro et al., the ZnS layer has induced the passivation of the CdSe QDs which led to the efficiency improvement [125]. This was evidenced by the increase of charge transfer resistance (related to recombination rate) and the ultrafast carrier dynamics study. These results indicate the use of both compact TiO₂ layer and ZnS passivation layer is essential in the fabrication of efficient QDSSCs.

On the other hand, coating the QD-sensitized TiO₂ surface with a SiO₂ layer gives better performance due to suppression of electron back transfer from TiO₂ to the electrolyte. The efficiency of a QDSSC increased from 1.05% to 2.05% after coating QDs with a SiO₂ layer [126]. Apparently, the SiO₂ layer plays a similar role as the ZnS passivation layer. An Al₂O₃ layer also can act as an inhibitor for electron recombination at the QD–electrolyte interface as reported by Luan et al. [92]. Besides coating with a passivation layer, surface treatment of the TiO₂ film with ionic solution helps to enhance the performance of the solar cell as well. When TiO₂ electrodes were treated with fluorine (either with NH₄F or HF), increase in power conversion efficiencies of Cd chalcogenide QDSSCs were observed [122,127]. Efficiencies as high as 1.54% and 3.93% have been obtained for CdS and CdSe QDSSC respectively for fluorine treated photoanode as observed by Samadpour et al. [127]. This enhancement is attributed to the reduction of the recombination of photoinduced carriers after fluorine treatment.

Suitable post-treatment used in synthesis and attachment of QDs also plays an important role in determining the solar cell performance. In Tena-Zaera et al.'s work, heat treatment above 350 °C on ZnO/CdSe core/shell nanowire arrays has induced a structural change in nanocrystalline CdSe [128]. The CdSe QDs also became larger after the heat treatment which might have promoted easy charge carrier injection from CdSe as evidenced by the observed increase in external quantum efficiency. Yu et al. have also reported the effect of annealing of QDs on the performance of QDSSCs [129]. A remarkable efficiency of 4.21% under 1 sun illumination was obtained with a TiO₂/CdSe/CdS/ZnS photoanode annealed at 400 °C. The cell made with the same photoanode without the heat treatment yielded an efficiency of 3.20% only.

Besides QD preparation methods, other factor that can influence the solar cell performance is the surface morphology of the photoanode particularly that of the wide band gap semiconductor or other conducting materials. Farrow et al. [130] have reported that the use of stacked-cup carbon nanotubes has produced a 10-fold increase in the photocurrent. The improvement of photocurrent is attributed to the fast electron transport between CdSe QDs and stacked-cup carbon nanotubes. With smaller CdSe QD size, electron transport is further increased making the structure a promising architecture for high efficiency light harvesting. Other notable surface morphology or “nano-geometry” reported includes TiO₂ nanofibres as in flower-like structure [131], TiO₂ nanorods [132–137], and TiO₂ nanowires [138]. All these special geometries show higher efficiencies when compared with the usual mesoporous TiO₂ film layers. For example, in Wang et al.'s work, they observed an efficiency of 2.54% in CdS QDSSC using TiO₂ nanorods compared to 1.84% of CdS QDSSC with conventional TiO₂ films [136]. Yu and Chen have reviewed the role of nanostructures geometry in enhancing the performance of solar cell [139]. They have concluded that the use of one-dimensional nanomaterials (nanotubes, nanowires and nanorods) is a good technique for improving QDSSC performance.

It is noted that different types of wide band gap semiconductor materials can produce different photovoltaic performances. Among the semiconductor materials used as electron conductors, TiO₂, ZnO and SnO₂ are popular. Other alternative materials are

being investigated nowadays. In Chen et al.'s work, a new type of QDSSC based on vertically aligned carbon nanotubes arrays (CNT) coated with ZnO nanorods has been fabricated that produced a higher power conversion efficiency [140]. The CNT/ZnO/CdSe photoanode has produced 40% improvement in efficiency compared that observed with the photoanode without CNT. The use of indium tin oxide (ITO) itself as a mesoporous conductor layer also proved to be functional when sensitized with CdS QDs [141]. However, not every type of materials can serve as an optimal electron conductor. In a recent report the CdS QD-sensitized Zn₂SnO₄ porous electrode did not produce high efficiency in QDSSC arrangement [142]. The highest efficiency obtained was below 1%.

Apart from utilizing different surface morphology, hybrid materials for the electron conductor are also favored. In Liu et al.'s work, hybrid mesoporous of CdSe/TiO₂ has been demonstrated to have better photoelectrochemical properties due to the enhanced interfacial coupling between CdSe and TiO₂ [143]. The CdSe/TiO₂ hybrid mesoporous structure was formed through emulsion-based bottom-up self assembly in which CdSe QDs and TiO₂ nanoparticles were mixed together and then assembled into colloidal spheres. Then the capping ligands were removed using calcination. This resulted in strong binding between CdSe QDs and TiO₂ nanoparticles. Doping is another way for creating hybrid structure. In a CdS QDSSC employing Zn-doped nanocrystalline TiO₂ films as reported by Zhu et al. [144] a photovoltaic efficiency of more than 2% was obtained. The 24% improvement in efficiency compared to that of the CdS QDSSC with TiO₂ layer only was due to the reduction of photogenerated electron recombination. In a recent development, the use of Au or graphene as an interfacial layer between TiO₂ and QDs in a QDSSC has showed an improved power conversion efficiency compared to that in cell without Au or graphene layer [145–148]. Lightcap et al. have reported that incorporation of graphene oxide or reduced graphene oxide in colloidal CdSe QD films deposited on conducting glass electrode has improved the charge separation and electron conduction by 150% [148]. In a separate work by Liu et al., Au/TiO₂ hybrid mesoporous films seemed to enhance the IPCE data of the CdSe QDSSC by 50% [149]. Nitrogen-doped TiO₂ layer is another doping strategy for performance improvement as demonstrated by Shu et al. with a high efficiency result of 3.67% in a CdSe/CdS QDSSC [150,151]. Additionally, cascading two types of wide band gap semiconductor appears to pave an alternative way for performance enhancement as in the case of QDSSC based on cascade structure of TiO₂/ZnO/CdS electrode [152]. The cascade structure showed an improvement in efficiency of more than 50% compared to that of the QDSSC with TiO₂/CdS electrode.

By varying the thickness or particle size of the TiO₂ layer, high energy conversion efficiencies can be achieved. This has been demonstrated by Zhang et al. [153] with a double-layer TiO₂ photoanodic structure having larger size of TiO₂ nanoparticles giving an energy conversion efficiency of 4.92%. The high efficiency was also attributed to the optimized thickness of TiO₂ layer. An optimum TiO₂ film thickness of 11 μm could produce high cell efficiency for Cd chalcogenide QDSSC as reported by Tian et al. They obtained an efficiency of 4.62% [154]. Applying a scattering layer on top of the TiO₂ film as practised in DSSCs also helps to improve the QDSSC performance to some degree. This has been shown by Hossain et al. by obtaining an efficiency of 5.21% with a scattering layer in a CdSe QDSSC [155]. More recently, few groups of researchers have shown significant contribution of TiCl₄ treated TiO₂ towards improving the QDSSC performance [156–158]. Zhang et al. have observed an efficiency of 4.61% in a CdS/CdSe QDSSC having TiCl₄ treated TiO₂ nanotubes array. This technique which was previously used in DSSC applications has become a good strategy in improving QDSSC performance.

Nevertheless, there are other methods which may not give higher power conversion efficiencies but have the potential for providing further improvement in the performance of QDSSCs. One such approach is mesoporous TiO_2 films prepared on conductive glass using a copolymer as template [159]. Another alternative method is depositing QDs right on the transparent conducting glass without the wide band gap semiconductor layer. Such an approach though is unusual, gives modest power conversion efficiency around 1% [160]. Besides these developments, investigation is under way to identify alternative cost effective substrates for the photoelectrode. Recent research has identified steel substrate as a potential candidate [161]. However, further optimization is needed to enhance its photovoltaic performance.

5.3. Stability—the role of electrolytes/redox mediator

In DSSCs, iodide/triiodide based liquid electrolytes are commonly used as redox mediators [21]. However, the use of iodide based electrolyte does not give good performance in Cd chalcogenide QDSSCs. The efficiency is usually very poor – less than 1% [162]. This is because iodide based electrolyte itself is corrosive towards the Cd chalcogenide QDs, especially for CdTe QDSSCs [163]. To remedy this problem, one should improve the surface morphology of the photoanode by applying a passive coating (as explained in Section 5.2) or use other non-corrosive type electrolytes.

Recent developments have seen the use of cobalt based electrolyte which promises high efficiency in QDSSCs [65,106,164,165]. Cobalt based electrolyte is also suitable to be used in DSSCs. As such, solar cells with co-sensitizers of QD and dye can use cobalt based electrolytes as common redox mediators. An efficiency as high as 4.76% has been achieved in a QDSSC based on cobalt redox couple as reported by Lee et al. [106]. This has placed cobalt redox couple as the most superior redox mediator for QDSSCs thus far.

For Cd chalcogenide QDSSCs, the commonly used electrolyte is polysulfide based [115,166]. However, not all QD sensitizers benefit from the usage of polysulfide electrolytes. Nevertheless, the presence of polysulfide electrolyte is imperative for the stability of metal chalcogenide-based QDSSCs. Bang and Kamat revealed that the sulfide ions are only capable of scavenging photogenerated holes in photoirradiated CdSe QDs system and not in CdTe QDs system [167]. However, in a recent work it was suggested that there is a slow hole scavenging from CdSe by sulfide ions which hinders the high overall efficiency [168]. As a result, the electrons aggregated within the TiO_2 matrix are prone to recombination at the interface between the photoanode and electrolyte, which in turn constrain the photocurrent generation efficiency. With the presence of the oxidized couple (i.e. addition of S or Se to the electrolyte), the rate of back electron transfer is further elevated. As such, a better way to control the back electron transfer is by surface modification of the QDs such as passivation layer coating.

Inclusion of additives to the electrolyte can give rise to better photoelectrochemical performance too. One example is guanidine thiocyanate (GuSCN) which has been shown to be a good additive for the polysulfide electrolyte as reported by Chou et al. [169]. The group obtained an efficiency of 2.01% in CdS QDSSC using GuSCN added polysulfide electrolyte. The efficiency is better than that of the previous reported CdS QDSSC having only polysulfide electrolyte [16]. The cells also showed a better stability of polysulfide electrolyte with the addition of SiO_2 nanoparticles. Ionic liquid which is commonly used in DSSC also has been demonstrated by Jovanovski et al. to be compatible in QDSSCs [170]. They obtained a cell efficiency of 1.86% with a high short-circuit photocurrent of 14 mA cm^{-2} in a CdSe QDSSC having the

new pyrrolidinium ionic liquid. However, further optimization is needed to bring up the performance of the cell to match with that of the cells having cobalt based or polysulfide electrolytes.

One particular solar cell property that has been attracting the attention from researchers is the internal quantum efficiency (IQE). IQE represents the efficiency rate of the absorbed photons that are converted to current in the external circuit. IQE can achieve the ideal value of 1 (or 100%). This has been successfully demonstrated by Fuke et al. by employing a Li_2S electrolyte [171]. This result opens a new direction for experimenting more efficient electrolytes for QDSSCs.

As liquid electrolytes do not give outstanding long term stability to QDSSCs, a suitable solid-state electrolyte is necessary to be developed to meet the stability requirement. Among the materials that have been developed to meet this criterion include but not limited to spiro-OMeTAD [65] and poly(3-hexylthiophene) (P3HT) which are hole conductors [168,172]. The use of P3HT has produced a better performance in a CdS QDSSC compared to those of cells using I^-/I_3^- or S^{2-}/S_x based electrolytes [172]. P3HT has produced an efficiency of 1.42% which is comparable to the efficiencies of the usual CdS QDSSCs with polysulfide liquid electrolytes. One notable discovery reported recently is the high efficiency quasi-solid-state QDSSC based on hydrogel electrolytes by Yu et al. [173]. The CdS/CdSe QDSSC with a polysulfide electrolyte based on PAM-MBA hydrogel achieved power conversion efficiency up to 4.0%. Unless a major breakthrough is made in developing an efficient electrolyte system, researchers have to rely on cobalt based or polysulfide electrolyte for their Cd chalcogenide based QDSSCs.

5.4. Effect of different counter electrodes

Different counter electrodes (CEs) employed in Cd chalcogenide QDSSCs can affect their overall performance [69]. In general, platinized transparent conductor layers have been used in most QDSSC assemblies. The Pt CE has been used in more than 50% of the Cd chalcogenide QDSSCs reported (refer to Table 1). However, there are other materials which have shown better performance in QDSSCs when used as CEs. Notable alternative materials for CEs include carbon, Au, Cu_2S and reduced graphene oxide.

Carbon is an alternative candidate for CEs due to its corrosion-inertness towards the polysulfide redox couple [174]. Application of carbon as a CE has enabled the fabrication of high-efficiency QDSSCs. Coupled with nanofibers geometry, efficiency of up to 4.81% has been achieved in a CdSe QDSSC as reported by Fang et al. [175]. In Sudhagar et al.'s work, CE with modified surface morphology like mesocellular carbon foam has enhanced the performance of CdS/CdSe QDSSCs [176]. The cell with this CE has produced an efficiency of 1.75% where as QDSSC using Pt as CE had an efficiency of 1.22%. The increased performance is attributed to the enhanced catalytic activity of the CE due to the large pores and surface area of the carbon foam. Nevertheless, more optimization and improvement are needed to achieve better efficiencies in Cd chalcogenide QDSSCs employing carbon as CEs.

Cu_2S is another preferred choice for CEs. In recent studies, higher efficiencies for Cd chalcogenide QDSSCs were obtained with Cu_2S as CEs [173,177]. Generally, Cu_2S CE is prepared from brass sheet by reacting it with concentrated HCl followed by dipping into an aqueous polysulfide solution. The highest efficiency of 5.21% has been obtained in a Cd chalcogenide QDSSC with Cu_2S as the CE by Hossain et al. [155]. A better CE material for QDSSCs is Au due to its inertness. Cd chalcogenide QDSSCs utilizing Au as CE have shown better performances compared to those of the cells with Pt as the CE [93,144,145,169,172,178–181]. To date, the highest cell efficiency reported for Cd chalcogenide QDSSC using Au as the CE is 4.22% by Lee et al. [93].

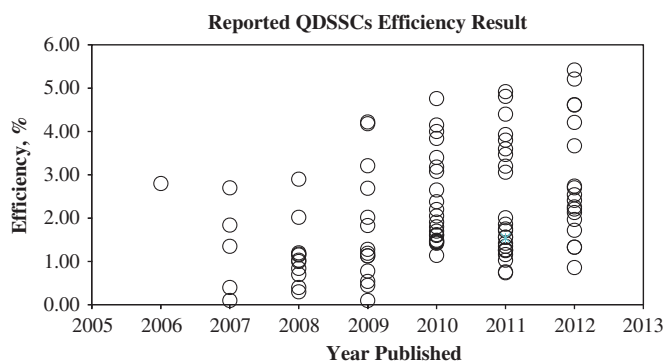


Fig. 9. Summary of the efficiencies of QDSSCs as reported in the literature reviewed that are given in Table 1.

Nano-sulfide/carbon composite counter electrode has also been demonstrated to yield a better performance with highest power conversion efficiency of 3.08% [182]. Better energy conversion efficiency can also be achieved with CoS as counter electrodes as demonstrated by Yang et al. with an efficiency of 3.40% in CdS/CdSe QDSSC utilizing CoS as the CE [183].

In the latest development, composite of reduced graphene oxide (RGO) and Cu_2S as CE has open up another material choice for use in QDSSCs [112,184]. An efficiency as high as 5.42% was reported by Santra et al. in a CdS/CdSe QDSSC with this composite material as the CE [112]. The high performance is also attributed to other factors such as Mn-doped CdS/CdSe QDs and ZnS passivation layer in the QDSSC assembly. Nevertheless, the use Cu_2S /RGO as CE has been verified by Radich et al. [184] who have obtained a better fill factor in a QDSSC. In another development, the use of conducting polymer materials as CEs has shown some promising results due to their low-cost availability, high conductivity, large surface area and good electrocatalytic activity for iodide based electrolytes. Among the candidates, PEDOT has helped to achieve an energy conversion efficiency of 1.35% when used as a CE in a CdS QDSSC [185]. Nevertheless, in depth investigations are in progress to identify other high performing CE materials.

6. Conclusions and perspectives

QDSSCs have become a promising alternative for DSSCs due to the excellent properties of QD sensitizers. Among the wide variety of semiconductor materials available for QDs, Cd chalcogenide has been the preferred choice, especially CdS and CdSe, by many researchers. We have reviewed the research work reported on QDSSCs with the focus on Cd chalcogenide as sensitizers. The fabrication of QDSSCs, their working principle and performance evaluation has also been discussed. The research activities have been focused in improving the overall efficiency of the QDSSC in recent years. In order to achieve improvements and breakthroughs in QDSSCs performance, focus should be channelled to the investigation of materials, surface treatments of photoanode and combined absorbers [186]. Given the limited range of materials that have been investigated so far, researchers have more room to explore and understand the use of new materials in improving the performance of QDSSCs. Based on the works by various researchers, a best performing Cd chalcogenide QDSSC should have high surface area TiO_2 layer as the substrate for maximum attachment of QDs. Ordered network for the main porous substrate for the sensitizers would definitely increase the efficiency of QDSSCs. The sensitized TiO_2 layer should be covered with a passivation layer in order to minimize the electron

recombination at the interface of photoanode and electrolyte. An efficient electrolyte and counter electrode (CE) are also important to achieve high fill factors and efficiencies. So far, cobalt based and polysulfide electrolytes have been found to work well in the Cd chalcogenide QDSSCs. Noble materials like Pt and Au are the usual choice for the CE while carbon and composite Cu_2S /RGO are gaining popularity. New materials and improved architecture of solar cell structure could pave way for achieving a high efficiency QDSSC. It is forecasted that the efficiency of QDSSCs could achieve higher value at lower cost should the trend of third generation solar cell as shown in Fig. 1 is materialized. The literature reviewed from recent years augur well with this trend (refer to Table 1 for the summary of the literature reviewed and Fig. 9 shows the summary of the reported efficiencies from the work published from 2006 to 2012). Although the power conversion efficiencies achieved are relatively high in the recent years, the variation in the reported values is mainly due to various methods and parameters used in each research pointing to the possibility of more novel discoveries and innovative research in the near future. Nevertheless, the highest efficiency obtained in each year has been increasing. With this trend, we foresee efficiency above 6% is achievable for Cd chalcogenide QDSSCs in the near future.

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